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ABSTRACT

This selective review of literature related to school dropouts looks at the issue of high school dropouts, emphasizing the disproportionate number of black female dropouts. Several examples illustrate that the reasons given for dropping out vary greatly depending upon the source and that reasons given by dropouts and their parents are at variance with those of school personnel. Areas of agreement regarding reasons why students drop out are also presented, cultural deprivation being the single most-often mentioned causal factor. The literature review reveals that potential dropouts are students with high truancy rates, poor attendance and behavior patterns, and significant academic and achievement deficits, they are members of ethnic minorities, from lower socioeconomic groups, with families unable to provide resources important to academic success. Definitions of the term "dropout" are discussed, and research on the development of attitude theory and its relationship to success and failure is reviewed. (NRB)

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WHY DO STUDENTS DROP OUT OF SCHOOL?
A SELECTED AND RELATED LITERATURE REVIEW

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WHY DO STUDENTS DROPOUT OF SCHOOL? A SELECTED AND RELATED LITERATURE REVIEW

This is a selective review of the literature concentratating on relevant topics with an emphasis on persistence and dropouts. The issue of high school dropouts will be reviewed first. Inasmuch as the literature on early school leaving is vast, this paper will be confined to the disparity and agreement pertinent to research data on dropouts and the technical definition of the word "dropout." Research which reflects the development of attitude theory and its relationship to success and failure will also be reviewed.

The Dropout with Respect to National Interests

America has been involved in maintaining public education for nearly a century, and today while the percentage of students who drop out is still too high, the percentage who stay in school and graduate from high school has never been higher. While Dentler and Warshauer's (1968) historical research reveals an increased rate of school retention over the past decades, the problem of school dropouts is still one of the most critical national concerns. The reason for this is that the individual who is without a high school diploma is deprived of entry into the world of work, independence and self-fulfillment (Randal et al., 1966).

Because education has been historically and traditionally perceived as the great equalizer of the American people, we therefore look to it for major assistance in resolving our national problems. Jones (1977), and Kaufman and Lewis (1968) conclude that the nation is more cognizant than at any other time in history that those individuals who do not possess a high school diploma will share disproportionate in the national wealth.

According to Jones (1977), of the 800,000 dropouts projected to drop out in the 1970 decade, 85 percent are poor and Black. He states that, "For these children, much of the cherished American dreams of equity, equality of educational opportunity, equality of employment opportunity, and the pursuit of happiness and material success are a cruel hoax" (p. 412).

The public sector of education is now in a period of tremendous pressure and challenge, a challenge to prepare an increasing population of ethnic minorities who are poor, alienated from the mainstream of America by their color, and ignored by society as a whole. The public educational system must plan to utilize the resources more effectively, efficiently, and readily if it is to answer the question of accountability in preparing and retaining the potential dropout from the educational milieu.

The overwhelming number of dropouts is, in itself, an awesome problem. The magnitude of this problem, coupled with the dimensions of the sociological-psychological-economic factors (according to Siegel, 1970), demands that society address itself to the reciprocal relationship between education and society as it affects people. More specifically, the number of Black dropouts is of great concern, for these youths have been shunned by lack of intervention and preventative programs which have led to problems of massive proportions to the youth and the Black family. The Black dropout bears the brunt of being poor and uneducated in several ways, for example, the direct correlation between undereducation and unemployment (Tannenbaum, 1966 and Wallace, 1974) affects him. The official unemployment rate for minorities is 44 percent; the Urban League claims, however, that for minority youths who are stigmatized with alienation-generating characteristics, unemployment runs as high as 60 percent (Vocational Foundation, Inc., 1978). Their lives are the lives of the hopeless, as documented by Beirn and Kinsey in their study, "Antecedents and Consequences of Early School Leaving" (1972).

Of even greater concern is the disproportionate number of Black females who leave school at a time when, in our work-oriented society, dropping out dooms them to a bleak future. Without a high school diploma, they are almost guaranteed to move in and out of the unemployment lines. According to Ladner (1972), unless something is done to turn the situation around, the economic dependency of Black females upon their parents will increase and eventually be transferred to society. The U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics data show greater unemployment among Black and other minority females age 16-19 (Appendix) than any other group.

Davenport and Petty (1973) report the following:

1. A disproportionate number of Black females drop out of school.
2. The greater number of these same young women will head households.
3. Of white males, minority males, white females, and minority females employed fulltime, it is these (minority) females who earn less than all other groups.
4. More than half of all Black women in this country are in the labor force, and
5. Half of the families with female heads-of-households are Black.

Comparatively speaking, Blacks have not fared as well in acquiring a high school diploma as their white counterparts, although they have made significant gains among the proportion of high school graduates for each successively younger age group of Black graduates (Edwards, 1978). For example, the following data show the differences for two age groups in 1970:

TABLE 1
BLACK HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATE

Ages	Year	Percent with High School Diploma
24	1970	59.6
20	1970	63.0

Included in this increase of Black youths who persist through graduation from our high school are those students formally and/or informally labeled, earlier in their school career, as potential dropouts. We know very little about Black high school students' persistence, which transcends the constraints of our educational system and our society and enables them to graduate from high school.

School Dropout

Miller, Saleem and Bryce (1964) reviewed the literature on school dropouts in the United States from 1949 to 1961. They caution the would-be researcher to examine the methodology of studies when attempting to establish a rationale for the school dropout. They further suggest that the rankings of reasons why youths drop out of school cannot be taken at face value. The reasons given in response to a questionnaire mailed to administrators will be at variance with the reasons given in response to the same questionnaire mailed to parents of dropouts and/or dropouts themselves.

Beirn, Kinsey and McGinn (1972) are other researchers who question the often contradictory reasons submitted in answer to the question: "Why do youths drop out of school?" The literature, taken as a whole, indicates that reasons given for school dropouts vary greatly depending upon the source (A Report by the Children's Defense Fund, 1974).

Gowan and Demo's research (1966) reflects the disparity among studies in which the composition of lists relevant to the dropout population are frequently utilized without regard to differences in population.

For example, the Illinois Dropout Study (1962) lists the following reasons why youths drop out of school:

1. Intellectual factors, such as low academic aptitude or low general ability, or high performance and low verbal intelligence.
2. Negative attitudes which the child brings to school.
3. Parental disinterest in education.
4. Retarded emotional maturity and social development.
5. Impoverished home background.
6. Irregular employment history in family.
7. Low educational attainment of family and relatives.
8. Pattern of early marriages.
9. High physical mobility of family.

Williams (1963) points out the importance of the fact that the father and/or mother were school dropouts also. Vars (1963) sees the degree of delinquency in the residential area of the students as an important influence in dropping out of school.

Ristow (1964) says that youths who drop out of school are either members of minority groups and/or live in families where the head of the household is an unskilled worker or laborer.

Young supplements Ristow's findings by adding that these youths often reside in an area of overcrowded housing units. Lyda (1965) considers the low socioeconomic standing of the family as significant.

The U.S. Department of Labor, October 1963, lists other predisposing personal factors as to why youths drop out of school. It says they are often academically slow, have hidden verbal ability, and prefer the out of doors.

Porter (1963) sees additional factors relating to why youths drop out of school. He says that our youth "have acquired a fatalistic view of life"; "have acquired a different set of values from the middle-class teacher"; "have been liberated via the automobile"; and "lack supervision at home."

On the other hand, Bowman (1960) cites the following motivations for dropping out of school based on data from 959 voluntary dropouts from poor neighborhoods:

TABLE 2
RESPONSES FROM 959 DROPOUTS FROM LOW
SOCIOECONOMIC NEIGHBORHOODS

CATEGORY	PERCENTAGE
Preferred work to school	36
Needed money to buy clothes and had to help at home	15
Not interested in school work	11
Couldn't learn and was discouraged	7
Failing and didn't wish to repeat a grade	6
Wanted spending money	6
Ill health	5
Disliked a certain teacher	5
Friends had left school	3
Parents wanted youth to leave school	2
Could learn more out of school than in school	1

Chronologically, the literature reflects variance as to why youths drop out of school. For example, McCreary (1953) notes that the inability to make friends is significant. Swan (1961) records that the newcomer to the city who comes from a rural area or small town is prone to dropping out. Cassel (1962)

lists a distrustful and resentful attitude toward adults, lack of goals, extreme physical size for age, and membership in a large family as predisposing factors. Matthews (1962) cites the financial strain which the child feels from a poor home as important. Lack of verbal communication at home is listed by Barnes (1963). Stron (1964) adds the difficulty with or inability to handle abstract thinking, generalizing, analyzing, and drawing inference from perception and sensory-motor and spatial relations. Atkisson (1964) adds that the presence of emotional disturbance is an important determinant in dropping out of school. Gowan (1966) sees a negative or unhealthy self-concept as a primary factor.

Simple explanations as to why youths drop out of school are difficult if not impossible to reach, since the variables for geographical areas (rural versus urban), socioeconomic groups, racial groups, sex, religion and family backgrounds contribute to the individual profile of the potential dropout.

The 1960's brought more extensive investigation on the dropout problem than any other time in our history. The studies, although all relating to the phenomenon, often examined a different aspect of the dropout problem. For example, Cervantes (1965) and Mannino's (1962) investigations analyzed the social background of the dropout. Some of the variables studied in regard to social background of the dropout included family influences, expectations, and socioeconomic class. Cervantes found the average income of both groups were about the same. Furthermore, they found no significant differences between the educational expectations of mothers of persisters and/or non-persisters. Dillion (1949), Stevens (1965), and Walsh (1966) found that there was a significant difference in the number of grades repeated by graduates and dropouts. Bowman and Matthew (1960) concluded that when I.Q. and socioeconomic status were matched between persisters and dropouts, the grades of the dropouts were much lower than the grades of graduates. Chillman (1960), in comparing I.Q., sex, grade placement, and school attendance of potential dropouts with persisters reported lower need scores in the areas of achievement and order among dropouts. Snapp (1956), Sullivan (1964), and Walsh (1966), all agree that the potential school dropout tends not to participate in extracurricular activities.

In a nine-state survey, the Children's Defense Fund (1974) studied the responses of children and/or their parents as to why students did not attend school. These students had been out of school for a minimum of 45 consecutive days. Table 3 indicates their responses.

TABLE 3

THE DROPOUT AND/OR PARENT'S POINT OF VIEW

CATEGORY		TOTAL
Did not like school		27.8
Habitual truancy		10.3
Barriers, such as		30.6
Pregnancy	5.8	
Employment	5.5	
School would not readmit	5.0	
Could not afford to send	4.5	
Children deemed "too young"	3.4	
Wanted to marry	2.4	
Had to help at home	1.9	
No transportation to school	1.3	
Difficulty with English	0.8	
Special needs, such as		14.8
Sick or injured	8.5	
Mentally retarded or slow learner	2.1	
Physically handicapped	1.6	
Emotionally disturbed	1.3	
Multiply handicapped	1.3	
Disciplinary actions, such as		10.9
Expulsion	6.1	
Suspension	4.8	
Others, such as		5.7
Children afraid to go to school or parent afraid to send	2.4	
Parents moved and thought it too late to enroll child	1.6	
Multiple reasons	0.5	
Family problems	0.3	
Institutionalized with no educational program	0.3	
Parent opposed to busing and would not send child	0.3	
Parents did not like school and withdrew child	0.3	

Jablonsky (1970), in her review of the literature on school dropouts, concluded that both rural and urban children were perceived as being critical to the development of the industrial economy several decades ago. Girls as well as boys opted to work; both were fairly assured of employment, and, as skilled workers, enhanced their status in life. However, the technological achievement which reduced the need for both skilled and unskilled workers, coupled with the reinforcement of child labor laws and mandatory school attendance, left no alternative to today's youth other than to complete a high school curriculum if they wished to be gainfully employed.

Areas of Agreement Regarding Reasons Why Students Dropout

There are, however, some significant factors that prevail across studies. These recurring factors, which cause instability as they relate to school retention, collectively may be viewed as those variables that are part of the social environment in which the potential dropout lives.

In summary, studies indicate that potential dropouts are usually as follows:

1. Children of adults who themselves have failed to graduate from high school.
2. Members of minority groups.
3. From the lower socioeconomic group.
4. Those students who have negative attitudes toward school.
5. Members of families who have little, if any, ability to provide the resources and/or environment conducive to the educational goals of society.

Prevailing Definitions Of The Term "Dropout"

The primary dilemma in defining the "dropout problem" begins with neither the conflicting results of the research nor the various methodologies employed, but with the accurate interpretations of the word "dropout." The Urban League of Onondaga County (1978) found that the "inconsistency in the criteria used for the definition of the term dropout on local, state and federal level" was disconcerting in their attempts to study dropouts.

The Bureau of Attendance uses the following definition contained in the Register Of Attendance published by the Webster Paper and Supply Company, Inc., 1965, Albany, New York: "A pupil over compulsory school-age who leaves school on his own volition before graduating from high school and without transferring to another school." Compulsory school age, in all but eleven states, ends at sixteen years of age.

The definition for dropout developed by the U.S. Office of Education, Washington, D.C., and published in the 1974 revised edition of Student/Pupil Accounting (p. 117: Standard Terminology and Guide for Managing Student Data in Elementary and Secondary School, Community/Junior Colleges, and Adult Education, Handbook V) is as follows:

Dropout: A student who leaves a school, for any reason except death, before graduation or completion of a program of studies and without transferring to another school. The term "dropout" is used most often to designate an elementary or secondary school student who has been in membership during the regular school term and who withdraws from membership before graduating from grade 12 or before completing an equivalent program of studies. Such an individual is considered a dropout whether his dropping out occurs before or after he has passed the compulsory school attendance age, and, where applicable, whether or not he has completed a minimum required amount of school work.

Attitude Theory

It has been suggested by numerous studies that one's attitude affects social actions and/or aspirations. One's attitude can stimulate positive and negative behavior toward or against some environmental factor which, according to Borgadus (1931) and Thurstone (1931), creates a positive or negative value.

Hypotheses have been put forth that students' attitudes play a major role in their ability to persist in school. If students possess a positive attitude toward education, is it fair to assume that they will value education and persist? Fishbein (1967) declares that more recent attitude research has indicated little evidence to substantiate that knowledge of an individual's attitude toward some object will allow one to predict the way he will behave with respect to the object.

The word "attitude" is an abstract term in the English language and consequently has more than one meaning. In view of the vast amount of attitude literature, an indepth review of the literature is not critical to this study. However, the researcher feels that some understanding of attitude theory is necessary so the reader will be provided with a perspective and understanding of attitude theory as it relates to this particular study.

As early as 1918, social psychology was defined as the scientific study of attitudes (Thomas and Znaniecki, 1918). The word "attitude" is derived from the Latin *aptus*, it has on the one hand the significance of "fitness" or "adaptedness," and like its byform *aptitude* connotes a subjective or mental state or preparation for action (Allport, 1935).

Because mentalistic psychology proceeded response psychology, it is found that mental attitudes are acknowledged before motor attitudes. Allport (1935) quotes Spencer, one of the foremost psychologists, to employ the term, motor attitudes, in his book First Principles (1862). He wrote:

When arriving at correct judgments on disputed questions, much depends on the attitude of mind we preserve while listening to, or taking part, in the controversy: and for the preservation of a right attitude it is needful that we should learn how true, and yet how untrue, are average beliefs.

Following a critical analysis of more than one hundred various definitions of attitude, Allport (1935) succinctly posited that the historical development of the concept of attitude, for contemporary psychologists, "... connotes a neuropsychic state of readiness for mental and physical activity."

In 1935, Allport concluded that the concept of attitude is the most distinctive and essential concept in the entire area of social psychology. Allport characterizes attitudes as "a mental and neural state of readiness, organized through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon the individual's response to all objects and situations with which it is related" (p. 8). Allport's definition of attitudes included the "task-attitude" which was discovered to play a major role in investigations of perceptions, judgment, and thought.

Leonard Doob (1948) contributed the second major milestone in attitude theory when he argued that there is more than a one-to-one relationship between attitude and behavior. Fundamentally, Doob's logic, as critiqued by Fishbein (1967), was the following:

Attitude is a learned predisposition to respond; that is, it is a learned mediating response. Thus one has to learn the attitude - the appropriate predisposition toward any given object. But once one has learned the attitude, he also must learn what response to make to it - that is, there is no innate relationship between the attitude and behavior; one still has to learn a behavioral response. Two people may learn to hold the same attitude toward a given stimulus; clearly, however, they may also learn to make different responses given the same learned attitude. (p. 478)

Katz and Stotland (1959) felt that attitude reflects an idea or belief and in addition reflects the feeling or effect of the idea or belief.

Krech and Crutchfield (1948) view attitude as " . . . an enduring organization or motivational, emotional, perceptual, and cognitive process with respect to some aspect of the individual's world."

Halloran (1967), agreeing with Allport, states that attitudes are not inherent. Rather, they are acquired, extended, and organized based on experiences. Further, attitudes have motivational qualities that can lead persons to search for or elude situations.

Johnson (1970) defines attitude as a state of readiness to react either positively or negatively. He, too, supports the theory of Halloran and Allport, in that the development of attitudes is experience-oriented and attitude change is clearly relatable to experience.

Hartley (1968) also supports the hypothesis of Halloran and Allport, agreeing that attitude is learned and has motivational, cognitive, effective, and expressive facets. He also concurs with Doob that attitude is more than a one-to-one relationship with behavior; that is, one's attitude is multifaceted and becomes " . . . integrated with the personality of the individuals."

Sherif and Sherif (1968) operationalize the term "attitude" by defining it as " . . . the individual's set of categories for evaluating a stimulus domain, which he has established as he learns about that domain in interaction with other persons and which relate him to various subsets within the domain with varying degrees of positive or negative effect" (p. 115).

When we postulate about one's perspectives, convictions, sentiments, and beliefs we are generating beliefs about that individual's attitudes. The attitudes of an individual reveals what he is, and what he is not, according to his self-image (Sherif, 1968). Therefore, it appears that different attitudes toward education would have a great influence on how long students aspire to stay in school (Tillery and Kildegaard, 1973), and to what extent they will search out supportive factors to maintain their educational aspirations. However, it is well known that different students may hold the same attitude, yet respond differently toward a given stimulus.

Student Attitudes

Students' attitudes toward school work and school in general, are influenced by their teachers, peers, family, and a host of other institutions and environmental factors. These attitudes have emotional accompaniments ranging from very strong agreement to very strong disagreement.

It is understandable that attitudes differ because no two students have exactly the same experiences. Certain circumstances predispose certain attitudes towards school; however, some of the variables contributing to variations in attitude are similar. Some students enjoy school; others do not. For most Black students, school, like the rest of life, is a "mixed bag" ranging from joy to fear, anger, and disgust, high expectations, anxieties, and doubts. Cain and Weisman's study (1972) which involved a survey of northern Blacks, supports the fact that each individual, Black or white, occupy variant psychological and social orientation.

Research traditionally has implied that social class identification related to low socioeconomic status nurtures negative attitude toward education, although Coleman's (1966) research has indicated high educational aspirations on the part of Black students and their parents. Discrepancies do exist between what students profess as attitudes and their resulting behavior. Studies by Festinger (1957) support the belief that attitude is often inconsistent with the "action" one takes.

Schools can be the most significant and meaningful force in the lives of the poor. Schools exercise, by compulsory attendance laws, more control than any other cultural force in shaping and preparing individuals for adult life. To a great extent, school experiences determine the attitudes and concepts which make us what we are. The Coleman Report (1966) made it explicit that attitudes of positive self-image are crucial to students' experiences of success in school. Mayeske's (1973) study concluded "that influences on student achievement tended, when analyzed, to resolve themselves into attitudinal and motivational factors . . . and that attitudinal and motivational factors were by far the more important."

Shaw, Edson and Bell (1960), stressed the need to study and understand the underachiever in attempting to heighten understanding of the interrelationship between factors of motivation and intelligence. In their study of 20 male and 21 female achievers, and 19 males and 27 female underachievers the authors found that:

1. Differences in attitudes do exist between achievers and nonachievers.
2. Male underachievers seem to have more negative feelings about themselves than do male achievers.
3. Female underachievers tend to be ambivalent with regard to their feelings toward themselves.
4. The present data do not indicate whether differences in self-concept are the causes, or the results of underachievement.

Edwards (1978) and Mackler (1970) concur that research relating to Black academic achievement has been, by and large, ignored. They further urge researchers to study attitudes of Black students who successfully triumph over the hostile social environment to achieve by overcoming tremendous odds.

Unfortunately, institutional racism prevails in all aspects of Black life - education, housing, employment, and social activities (Marshall, 1971), thus making the attainment of academic success even more elusive to minorities. However, Edwards' study on Black high school students who were experiencing academic success increase our optimism for the future. He projects that "... attitudes toward academic success and attitudes toward other aspects of life will coalesce, forming a minimally contradictory system."

The complex interaction of the many individuals who team to deliver the educational goals of society, coupled with the interfacing with those who are recipients of the educational goals are permeated by the attitudes of all involved. Many variables, including the above, contribute to the formation of attitudes. In the formative years there are those who consciously and/or subconsciously contribute to the individual's self-concept and personality formation through social experiences (Campbell, 1968).

In summary, then, the literature reveals that the population who are most apt to be potential dropouts are those students who are often referred to as "high risk population." In other words, potential dropouts are students with high truancy rates, poor school attendance or behavior, and significant academic and achievement deficits in comparison to their peers; they are members of an ethnic minority group of a lower socioeconomic level and members of families who do not have the wherewithal to provide the resources for their children, which are important for academic success.

The research in the area of attitude theory reveals that aptitude, the byform of attitude, connotes a mental state of learned readiness for a given stimuli. Thus directly affecting persistence is individual attitude. Attitudes are intermixed with ideas and values. These determinants make up an individual's self concept which, to a large extent, dictate levels of emotional control and intellectual responses basic to success and/or failure in the educational milieu. The literature review indicated that research interest is declining in those areas of study which imply that socioeconomic status is synonymous with negative attitudes toward school.

It is noted that a good deal of disparity existed in the research on dropouts; yet, a recurring theme which prevailed as a "conceptual frame" that strongly stated "cultural deprivation" as the single most mentioned casual factor for academic failure (dropout).

The reasons for early school leaving rendered by dropouts' themselves and/or their parents were not in agreement with those submitted by school-related personnel. For example, the reasons given in response to why students drop out of school by administrators are at variance with the responses to the same questionnaire submitted by parents and/or dropouts.

The definition of the term dropout was researched to establish the accepted interpretation of the term on a national level.

YEARS OF SCHOOL COMPLETED BY BLACKS: 1950 TO 1975.

(Persons 25 years and older as of March of year shown, except as noted. 1970-1975 based on current population surveys: include members of Armed Forces living off post or with families on post, but excludes all other members of Armed Forces. Beginning 1973, exclude inmates of institutions.)

NEGRO PERSONS					
AGE AND YEAR	PERCENT				
	Not high school graduates		With 4 years of high school or more		Median school years completed ¹
	Total	With less than 5 years of school	Total	College, 4 years or more	
25 years and older:					
1940 ²	92.7	42.0	7.3	1.3	5.7
1950 ²	87.1	32.9	12.9	2.1	6.8
1960 ²	79.9	23.8	20.1	3.1	8.0
1970.....	66.3	15.1	33.7	4.5	9.9
1973.....	60.8	12.6	39.2	6.0	10.6
1974.....	59.2	12.9	40.8	5.5	10.7
1975.....	57.5	12.3	42.5	6.4	10.9
25-29 years:					
1940 ²	(NA)	27.7	11.6	1.6	7.0
1950 ²	80.4	16.8	22.2	2.7	8.6
1960 ²	62.3	7.0	37.7	4.8	9.9
1970.....	43.9	2.5	56.2	7.3	12.2
1973.....	35.8	1.5	64.2	8.1	12.3
1974.....	31.7	2.1	68.2	7.9	12.4
1975.....	29.0	0.5	71.0	10.7	12.5

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, U.S. Census Population 1960 and Current Population Reports series P-20.

YEARS OF SCHOOL COMPLETED, BY BLACKS AND SEXES¹
1960 to 1975

YEAR, RACE, AND SEX	Persons 25 years old and over (1,000)	PERCENT OF POPULATION COMPLETING--							Median school years com- pleted
		Elementary school			High school		College		
		0-4 years	5-7 years	8 years	1-3 years	4 years	1-3 years	4 years of more	
1960, all races...	99,438	8.3	13.8	17.5	19.2	24.6	8.8	7.7	10.6
Negro.....	9,054	23.8	24.2	12.9	19.0	12.9	4.1	3.1	8.0
Male.....	4,240	28.3	23.9	12.3	17.3	11.3	4.1	2.8	7.7
Female.....	4,814	19.8	24.5	13.4	20.5	14.3	4.1	3.3	8.6
1970, all races...	109,310	5.3	9.1	13.4	17.1	34.0	10.2	11.0	12.2
Negro.....	10,089	15.1	16.7	11.2	23.3	23.4	5.9	4.5	9.9
Male.....	4,619	18.6	16.0	11.1	21.9	22.2	5.7	4.6	9.6
Female.....	5,470	12.1	17.3	11.3	24.5	24.4	6.0	4.4	10.2
1974, all races...	115,005	4.4	7.6	10.8	15.9	36.1	11.9	13.3	12.3
Negro.....	10,899	12.9	14.7	9.0	22.7	27.0	8.3	5.5	10.7
Male.....	4,868	15.9	15.1	9.5	19.6	25.5	8.6	5.7	10.5
Female.....	6,030	10.4	14.3	8.5	25.2	28.2	8.0	5.3	10.9

¹ Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, U.S. Census Population: 1960, vol. I, and Current Population Reports, series P-20, Nos. 207, 274, and 295.

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